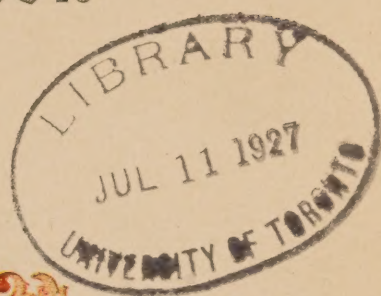


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Diamond Jubilee of Confederation

Suggestions ...



Published by the Executive Committee of the National Committee
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of Confederation.

General publication - 4

The illustrations in this book were prepared at the request of the National Committee by a distinguished Canadian artist. Eight of them are reproduced in colour and the balance in half-tone. Technical difficulties made it impossible to reproduce all the pictures in colours in the short time at the disposal of the Committee.

These illustrations are intended as suggestions for community committees in the preparation of floats for processions; tableaux for indoor and outdoor performances, and for pageantry where time permits.

Further designs in black and white can be obtained upon application to the National Committee.

CA 55 84
- 27D37

Diamond Jubilee of Confederation

*Suggestions for Historical Pageants,
Floats and Tableaux (with illustra-
tions in colour) for the Guidance of
Local Committees in Charge of
Diamond Jubilee Celebrations*

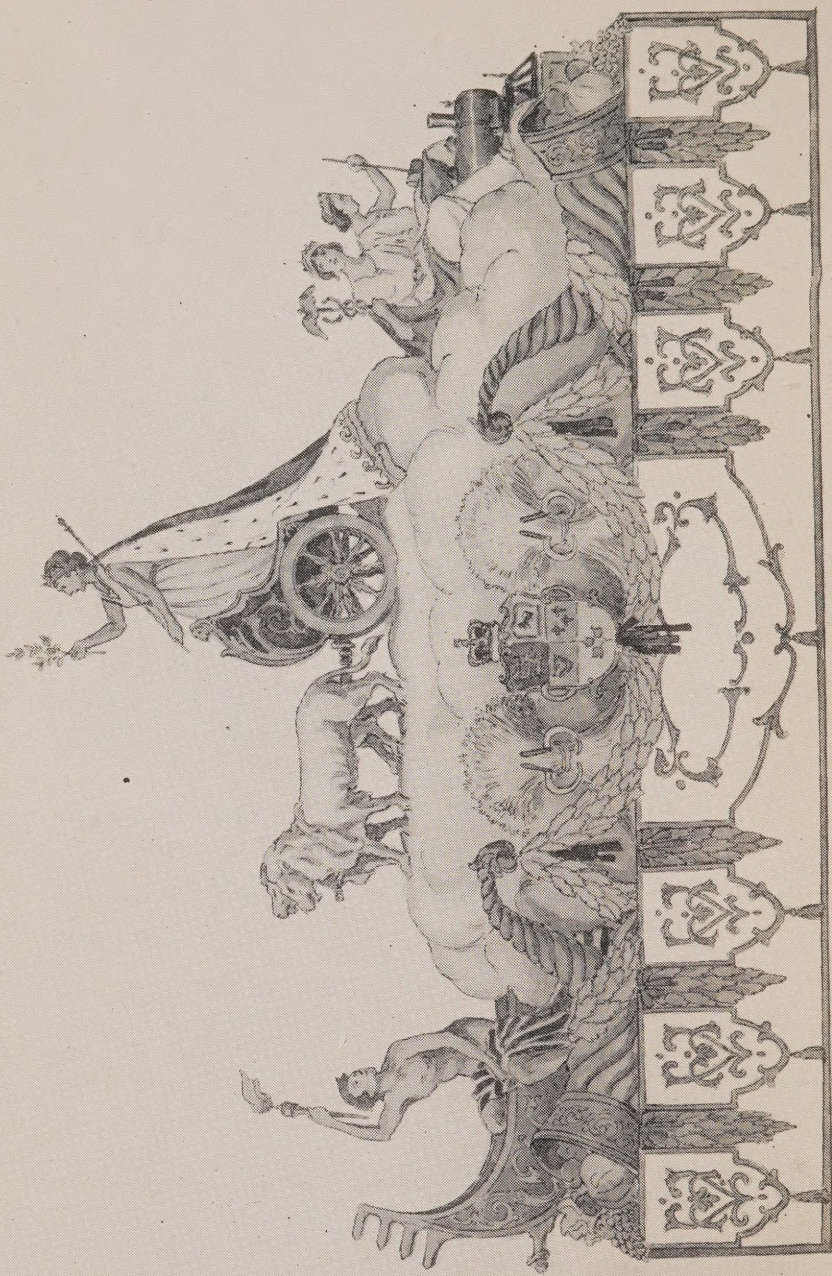
*General Sketch of Canadian History
with Special Reference to the Con-
federation Period*

Bibliography of Canadian History

PUBLISHED BY
THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE
FOR THE CELEBRATION OF THE DIAMOND JUBILEE
OF CONFEDERATION

—
106 WELLINGTON STREET, OTTAWA

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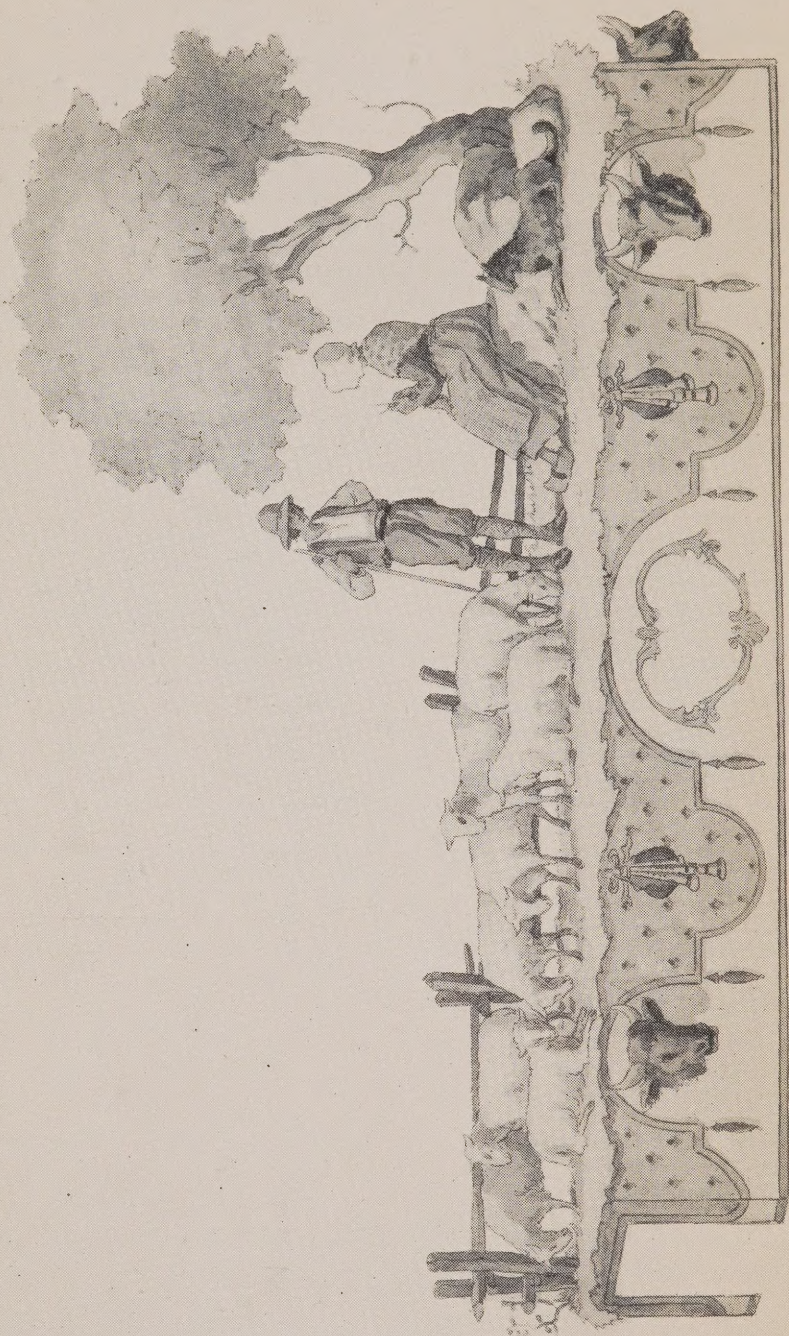
PROGRESS
Canada looks forward to an Era of Peace and Prosperity.

Table of Contents

	PAGE
Progress.....	2
Herds and Flocks.....	4
New France.....	5
Forest Wealth.....	7
Early Days under the British Flag.....	8
The Years before Confederation.....	10
The Melting Pot.....	13
Confederation.....	14
Wealth from the Sea.....	19
Champlain the Discoverer.....	21
The Mounted Police.....	29
After Confederation.....	30
Electricity.....	37
A Bibliography of Canadian History.....	39
Reference Works.....	39
General Histories.....	40
Sectional Histories.....	40
Historical Biography.....	44
Description and Travel.....	44
Historical Pictures.....	45
Armorial Ensigns of the Provinces of Canada.....	47

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

The Landing of the Loyalists.....	4
Transportation by Water.....	8
Driving the Last Spike.....	16
Discovery of the Canadian West.....	24
Lumbering in Canada.....	24
The Story of Wheat.....	32
Confederation.....	40
The Founding of Acadia.....	41
The Fur Trader.....	43
The Discovery of Canada.....	44
Ensigns of the Provinces of Canada.....	46



HERDS AND FLOCKS

They feed upon Canada's broad acres, and they in turn help to feed the world.



THE LANDING OF THE LOYALISTS

This scene depicts the founding of St. John, N.B., and the beginnings of New Brunswick, but would be equally applicable to the landing of the Loyalists in Nova Scotia or Upper Canada.



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A Brief Sketch of Canadian History

with Special Reference to the Confederation Era

I. NEW FRANCE

The beginnings of French Canada go back to that memorable day in 1534 when Jacques Cartier landed on the Gaspé shore. Seventy-one years later De Monts founded Port Royal, on the Bay of Fundy, and laid the foundations of Acadia. In 1608 Samuel de Champlain, enterprising, patient and determined, established a tiny colony of some twenty souls under the rock of Quebec, and for half a century it grew very slowly.

The method whereby European powers in the Seventeenth Century dealt with the problem of colonization was by granting monopolies to Chartered Companies, and making colonization one of their principal obligations. A succession of these corporations made more or less profit out of the fur trade in Canada, but failed to people the valley of the St. Lawrence; failed even though the great Richelieu bestowed upon the project his influence and energy.

There was a full share of ill-fortune, such as the three-year eclipse caused by Kirke's successful attack, and the arousing of hostility of the Iroquois; climate and soil proved adverse until experience taught the way to deal with them; and in addition there was a peculiarity in the little settlement which gives great interest to its early struggles.

Three strands were entwined in the cord which united Canada to the mother country of that day: the hope for immediate material gain, which could come only from the fur trade; the desire to found a New France; and the missionary impulse.

The last-named of these motives probably was strongest in the rulers who countenanced the infant colony, for a remarkable

number of the striking events of the first half century had an idealistic aspect; Montreal, now the commercial centre of the Dominion, was founded as a religious enterprise, noble ladies came to Canada to superintend the education of girls, Bishop Laval arrived as Vicar Apostolic, and the missionary orders vied with the fur traders in exploring the forests to find Indians to evangelize.

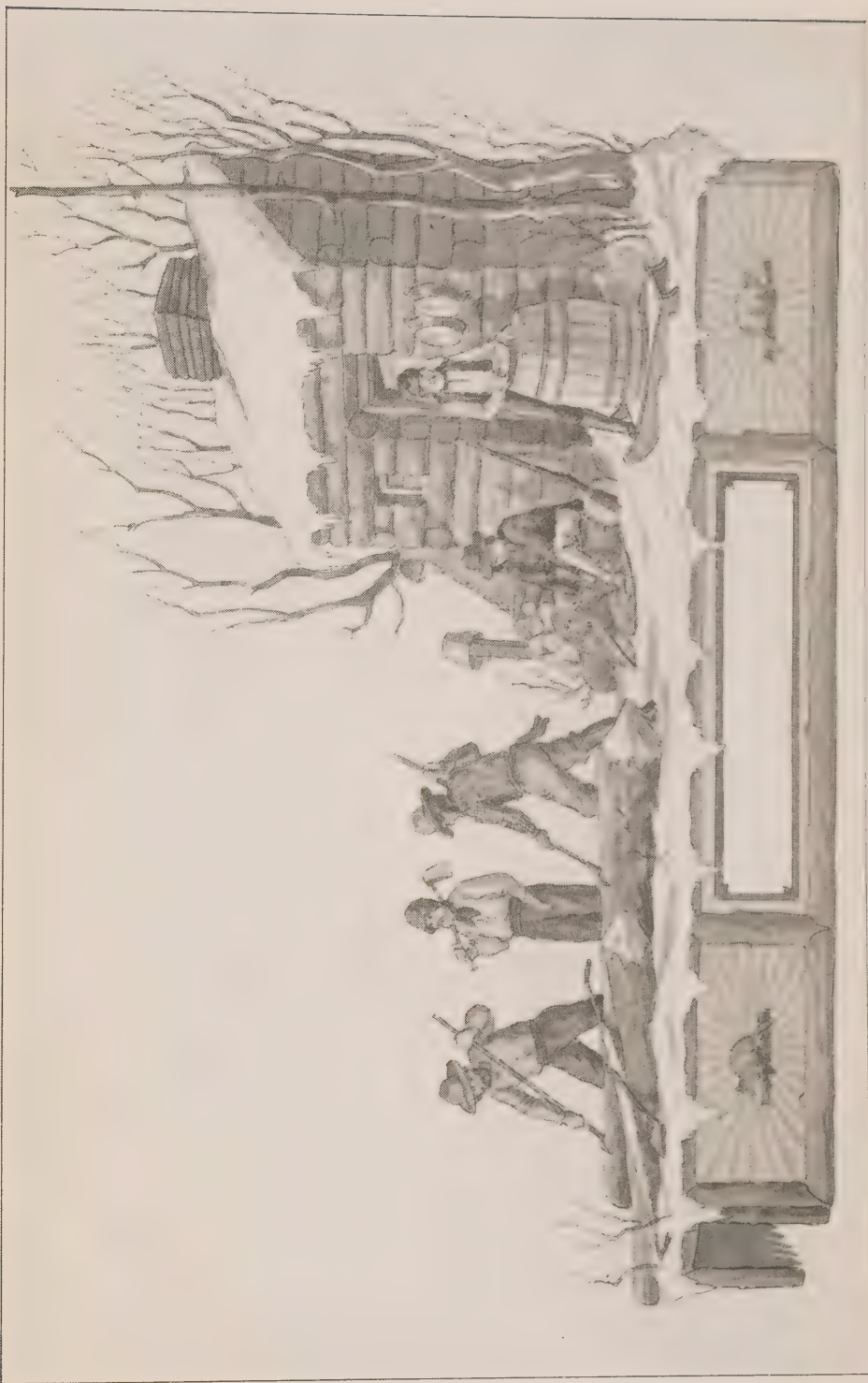
But the day by day control rested with merchants whose interest in the fur-trade, and a strong and growing colony, with its spreading farms, meant the banishment of the peltry-bearing creatures to remoter wildernesses, and meant also the appearance of local public opinion which would complicate the operations of trade.

In 1663 Louis XIV swept away company rule and set up in Canada the full machinery of royal government, as practised in the French provinces of that era—governor, intendant (an administrative and judicial officer), feudal system and the rest. At that time the population was not much more than 2,000, but the King's Government actively promoted emigration, and the colony began to grow.

The New France which developed in the scant century before 1759 was a colony of an unusual sort. It was of a military type, and its feudal character gave it great strength in proportion to the numbers of its people, in the incessant wars with the Indians and with the English colonies to the south.

Its one mercantile aspect was the trade in furs, an adventurous and picturesque occupation which gave opportunity to a succession of daring and intelligent explorers, who traversed the Great Lakes, discovered the Mississippi and penetrated to the prairies at a moment when their base was the slender strip of tilled land along the St. Lawrence.

Agriculture was slow in developing, but the pressure of raiding Indians and the influence of the social system gave a compactness to the settlements as they grew. Hard and rough as conditions were, there was a measure of social brilliance



FOREST WEALTH

From the trees of her boundless forests Canada has drawn Comfort and Prosperity since the days of the Pioneers.

due to the careful fostering of a class system transplanted from France.

Above all, there was almost incessant war, which at bottom was a rivalry between this sparsely settled and poverty-stricken, but ambitious, well organized and intelligently-directed aristocratic colony in the St. Lawrence valley, and the far more numerous, disunited, individualistic, wealthy and democratic English colonies.

It was a conflict of half a century, the French making a series of skilful sorties which stung but did not greatly injure their enemies, and the British power levelling blow after blow at the heart of Canada, any one of which might prove fatal if it succeeded.

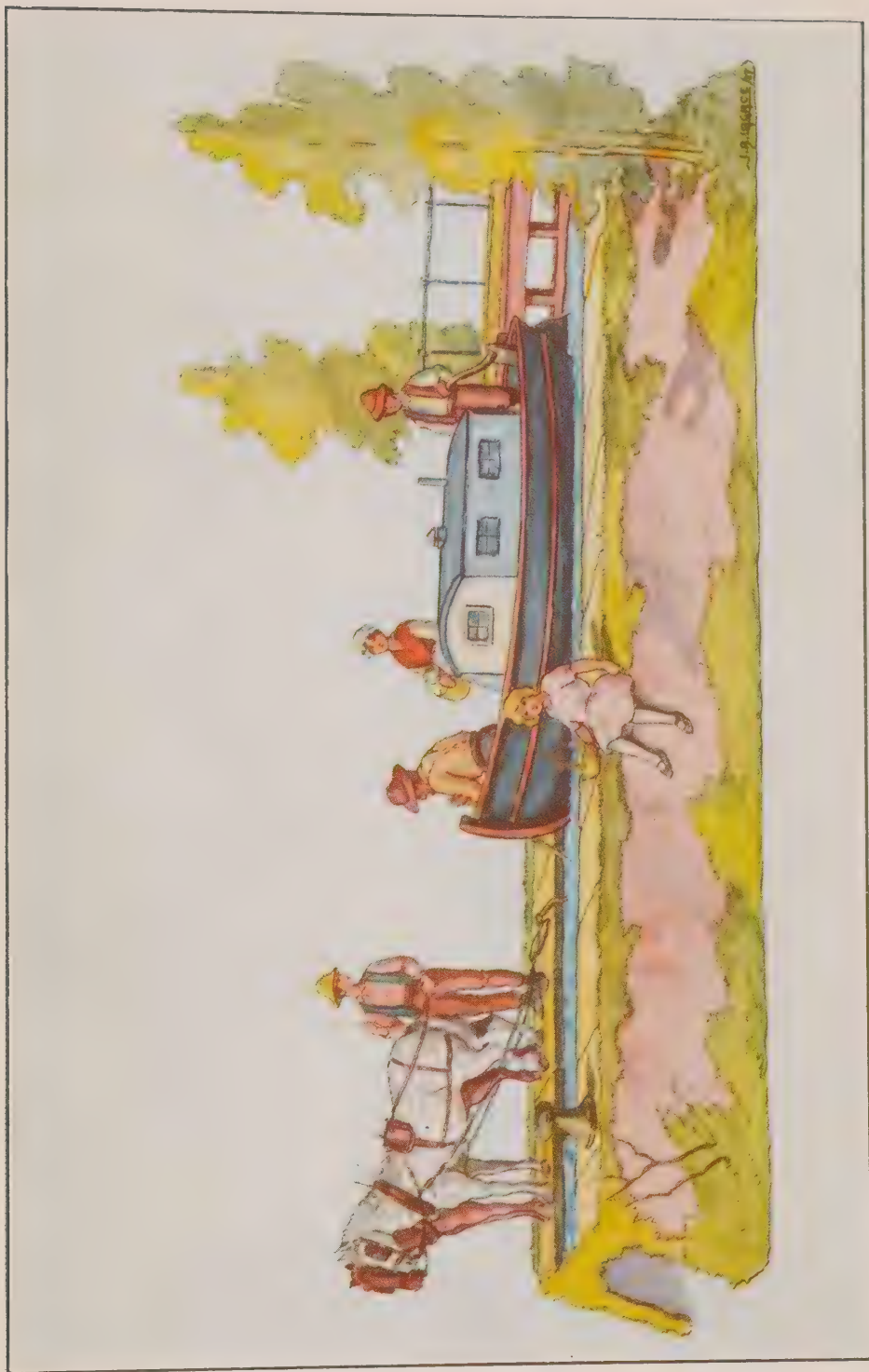
A galaxy of memorable names shines at us from our histories—Dollard, who sacrificed himself at the Long Sault on the Ottawa river, in breaking an Iroquois descent on Montreal; Frontenac, who repelled one of the early assaults upon the citadel of New France; La Salle, Iberville, La Vérendrye, Montcalm, Lévis, and the rest of the warriors and explorers of the Old Régime.

But it was in essence a defensive war, and at last, in 1759, the genius of Montcalm, overcome by stress of circumstance, had to give way to the genius of Wolfe, and Canada became British. The French population at that time numbered about 60,000.

II. EARLY DAYS UNDER THE BRITISH FLAG

What followed was a swift and surprising change. Canada from being the implacable enemy of Great Britain on the North American continent became the citadel of British influence. The old Colonial era ended with the successful revolt of the American colonies, but Canada remained under the Union Jack, and repelled the attempt of Montgomery and Arnold to add her by force to the United States.

The British flag now flew over a cluster of Atlantic colonies --Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince



TRANSPORTATION BY WATER

Canadians early recognized the importance of linking by canals the splendid series of lakes and rivers that traverse the country. One of the earliest of these artificial waterways.

Edward Island; over the new colony which touched the sea at Quebec and extended inland to the Great Lakes; and, through the medium of the Hudson's Bay Company, over the far north.

This group of colonies resisted the separatist influence of the United States for diverse reasons, but the soul of the situation was the fairness with which the French colonists had been treated by the British Government. Strongly Protestant herself, Great Britain granted full freedom for the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion, and confirmed sundry privileges of the Church; in the same spirit, the French civil laws were allowed to remain, and the French farmers found themselves living under a system which at once gave them what they valued most under French rule, and conferred upon them in addition British rights and an increasing measure of a self-government which was alien to the conceptions of the old French royal rule. Further, after generations of warfare, they were at peace, and the habitant turned to that patient industry which has transformed the face of the land.

But the region which we to-day call Canada no longer was a wholly French-speaking colony, for conditions were being complicated by an inrush of English-speaking new-comers. Even before the American Revolution, parts of Nova Scotia had been settled by New England settlers—the "pre-loyalists". These had replaced the expelled Acadian settlers who had found it impossible to live at peace with British settlers at Halifax.

After the Revolution the United Empire Loyalist refugees poured into the northern colonies—some of them into Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, many of them into New Brunswick, others into the Gaspé Peninsula and the Eastern Townships, and others again to the shores of the St. Lawrence river, the Bay of Quinte, the Niagara, Lake Erie and the Detroit river in Upper Canada.

The colonies still were under a strong semi-military rule, for the Revolutionary war left an aftermath of ill-feeling; new wars were brewing across the Atlantic; and presently the French

Revolution involved the Mother Country in a quarter of a century of conflict; so that British North America grew up in stormy times.

The subjugation of the wilderness in these new colonies was carried on amid a curious mixture of conscious planning by governors like Dorchester and Simcoe, and individual toil by settlers with axe and plough. And there was the uneasiness caused by the juxtaposition of French-speaking and English-speaking settlers held apart by differences of race and speech and temperament. The Quebec Act of 1774 had marked the recognition of French Canadian rights; the Constitutional Act of 1791 separated Upper Canada from the older province, gave it institutions of an English cast, and conferred parliamentary institutions on both; and the secret of parliamentary rule had to be learned in struggles over taxation and administration which settled down into a demand for "responsible government."

The first period of British rule in Canada culminated in the war of 1812, a heroic struggle in the life of Upper Canada, and an honourable memory to the other colonies. Throughout the whole of the pioneer era in English-speaking Canada, relations with the United States were unquiet, for two main reasons: the newly established republic, hostile to monarchy on principle, and with its public opinion inflamed by a persistent propaganda which had its roots in the revolutionary controversy, grudged seeing the northern colonies still under the British flag and outside the Union; and there was the huge empire of the west still to be divided between the Union Jack and the Stars and Stripes.

III. THE YEARS BEFORE CONFEDERATION

To an extent not always realized, the Canadas and their sister colonies lived in those days as a species of garrison of British institutions under threat of aggression, and when, in the gigantic struggle between Great Britain and Napoleon, American neutrals

suffered interference from French and British alike, the United States elected to assail Great Britain.

In the war of 1812-14 the American effort was weak because of bad organization, while the British defence was conducted with brilliant skill, the fullest use being made of sea-power and the available man-power being utilized to the last ounce. Of a struggle which was marked by such episodes as Queenston Heights, Detroit, Lundy's Lane, Chrysler's Farm and Chateauguay, it is enough to say that it opened with the Americans confidently expecting an easy and immediate over-running of Canada, and ended with the United States on the defensive, and pluming themselves on repelling British incursions into northern New York and against the mouth of the Mississippi.

The war finally convinced the United States that Canada preferred to remain British, and has been followed by a peace of more than a century, during which the relations between Canada and her great neighbour have steadily improved.

When peace came there ensued an immigration of British stock which caused the English-speaking colonies to increase in population with great rapidity. Hard times at home sent out to the Maritime Provinces, to the Eastern Townships and to Upper Canada a stream of migration which was enormous for the time. In 1816 the population was not greatly in excess of half a million; in 1867 it was 3,000,000; in the eight years from 1831 to 1838 inclusive over 222,000 immigrants entered Upper and Lower Canada alone.

These were the primitive years of struggle, when the forests fell before the axe-wielding settlers, when amid toil and privation an energetic people hewed out farms from the densely wooded wilderness, established mills and the other industries of a pioneer civilization, and set up a society based upon work and abounding in enterprise.

Every decade saw fresh gaps in the green woodland, new towns founded, new townships and counties organized, and half a century after the Peace of Ghent the face of Eastern Canada,

so far as the balance between forest and tillage is concerned, was that of a settled community.

The economic process was rapid; before the ordinary road system had been perfected the railway came, and the colonies turned with furious energy and high hopes to the building of the new means of travel and trade. For a century canals were dug and deepened; the fur trade swiftly moved westward and was replaced by lumbering; Upper Canada was a grain-growing region, and her prosperity was only checked by the repeal of the Corn Laws in Great Britain. The Maritime Provinces developed fishing industries and prospered in the building of ships and in the carrying trade. There was a period, from 1854 to 1866, when the American market, already profitable, was open to British American produce. There was another episode, just before Confederation, when the withdrawal of that market spread ruin and distress. The whole period was one of varied manifestations of the instinct to work, to produce and to trade.

Politically, it was a troubled era. In all the colonies the people who lived in the country were restless under the tutelage of the Mother Country, who, it must not be forgotten, held the country with a strong garrison, provided a substantial share of the public expenditures, constructed important works, poured in capital, and, until the victory of Free Trade, afforded a sheltered market.

The earlier plan of government provided in brief for legislation by the local legislatures, while administration was more or less under the influence of the Home Government—a type of government, in fact, not unlike that of the United States.

In all the colonies the legislatures strove for control of administration as well, this being the meaning of “responsible Government”. In Lower Canada the dispute was embittered by racial differences. In the Maritime Colonies these difficulties were surmounted peaceably, but in the Canadas in 1837 and 1838 there were short-lived rebellions.

When these slight revolts had been suppressed the British Government sent out the Earl of Durham with wide powers



THE MELTING POT

Canada holds out her hand in welcome to the Foreign Born. She offers them Homes, and demands in return that they become Good Citizens.

to survey the situation and devise a method whereby the colonies, more especially the Canadas, could be governed more to the content of their peoples. His "Report," an epoch-making document, proposed in effect the granting of responsible government, conditional upon the union of Upper and Lower Canada into one province.

In 1841 United Canada began a career which lasted until 1867. Despite some vicissitudes this was a period of economic growth, but politically it was trying. The French Canadians were opposed to the union, public opinion in "Canada West" (as the province now called Ontario was styled), was greatly divided, and, while responsible Government was achieved and much useful legislation was enacted, the united Parliament was difficult to manage, all sorts of curious political combinations had to be effected, Administration followed Administration in melancholy procession, and public life, although it attracted men of high abilities and good principles, was disfigured by acrimony.

Such was the scene when Confederation became a question of practical politics.

IV. CONFEDERATION*

The idea of uniting the British North American Colonies under one government has had many progenitors, the line extending back to the time of William Smith, a former Chief Justice of Canada, who in 1789 propounded to Lord Dorchester a project for the establishment of a central legislative body consisting of a nominated council and of an assembly, the members of which were to be chosen by the popular branches of the provincial legislatures. The time, however, was not ripe for such a system of government, and nothing came of Smith's plan. Twenty-five years later, another Chief Justice (Sewell) proposed a somewhat similar scheme, with like result. He was followed by others; but the difficulty of communication between the various colonies, apart from other considerations, was felt to be an insuperable

* This section on Confederation is, with slight abridgement, taken from an article prepared by the late Sir Joseph Pope, for the Canada Year Book, 1918.

bar to any union other than that involved in their common allegiance to the British Crown.

With the introduction of railways, the idea appeared more feasible. In 1850, the British America League, formed to counteract the annexation movement of 1849, stated in its prospectus that the true solution of the difficulties of the time lay in the confederation of all the provinces. In the following year Henry Sherwood, who had filled the offices of Attorney General for Upper Canada and Prime Minister, published a scheme for the "Federative Union of the British North American Provinces," which provided for two elective chambers, as well as for a system of local legislatures somewhat as it exists to-day, save that the provincial governors were to be elective. The Fathers of Confederation seem to have had Sherwood's draft before them when framing the British North American Act of 1867. For example, it designates the representative of the Sovereign as the "Viceroy," and this may have suggested the name "Vicereignty" for the united provinces, which was under consideration at the London Conference of 1866. Again, Sherwood's draft provided for the erection of a Supreme Court of Appeal, as in the Quebec resolutions of 1864. Sherwood's scheme, however, while marking a development in the idea of union, shared the academic character of its predecessors and, like them, failed of result.

It was not until 1858 that the question may be said to have entered the domain of practical politics. In that year, Alexander Galt, then member for Sherbrooke in the provincial assembly, advocated, both in and out of Parliament, the confederation of all the British North American provinces, with such effect that the Cartier-Macdonald Government, formed a few months later, in which he was included, dispatched a mission to England to sound the Imperial authorities upon the subject. They were informed that only one colony besides Canada had expressed any opinion in regard thereto, and that until the other provinces had made known their sentiments, Her Majesty's Ministers would be acting prematurely in authorizing, without any

previous knowledge of their views, a meeting of delegates which might commit them to a preliminary step towards the settlement of a momentous question, to the principle of which the colonies had not signified their assent. On the return of the Canadian delegates, the governments of the Maritime Provinces were put in possession of all the proceedings which had taken place; but a change of ministry in England occurring shortly afterwards, nothing more was heard of the subject for some years.

Goldwin Smith has observed, in one of those epigrammatic sentences with which his writings abound, that the parent of the Confederation was deadlock, and it is not to be doubted that to the difficulty of administration, owing in large measure to the sectional antagonism between Upper and Lower Canada, is due the impetus given to the scheme of union on the defeat of the second Taché-Macdonald Ministry in June, 1864.

The coalition of 1854 between the followers of Hincks and Baldwin, the Conservative party of Upper Canada, and a large majority of the Lower Canadian members, enabled Macdonald and Cartier to carry on the government for eight years, though with every-increasing difficulty and diminishing support. In 1862 they fell, and for a brief period John Sandfield Macdonald reigned in their stead. His tenure was still more precarious than that of his predecessors, who two years later returned to office, though not to power, only to suffer defeat within a few weeks of their accession. Thus was the impasse reached. Inasmuch as two general elections had taken place within three years, a further appeal to the people offered no prospect of relieving the deadlock which threatened to render all government in Canada impossible.

It was at that crisis that George Brown, the leader of the Reform party in Upper Canada, patriotically offered his co-operation towards settling forever the constitutional difficulties between Upper and Lower Canada. He was met by Macdonald, Cartier and Galt, and their deliberations resulted in a compact to form a coalition government for the purpose of



DRIVING THE LAST SPIKE

When in November, 1885, Donald Smith (Lord Strathcona) drove the last spike in the Canadian Pacific Railway he forged a vital link in the chain of Confederation. The other principal figures in the scene are William Van Horne and Sandford Fleming.



negotiating a confederation of all the British North American provinces, failing which they undertook to promote the adoption of the federal principle for Canada alone, pending the accomplishment of the larger union.

On that understanding George Brown, Oliver Mowat, and William McDougall, leading members of the Opposition, entered the Cabinet of which Sir Etienne Taché was the head, and of which John A. Macdonald and Georges Cartier were leading members.

Meanwhile a somewhat similar movement was taking form in the Maritime Provinces, which, with the exception of Newfoundland, had been originally under one government—that of Nova Scotia. In 1769 Prince Edward Island had been granted a government of its own, and, fifteen years later, New Brunswick became a separate province.

From time to time thoughtful men dwelling by the sea had given expression to a feeling that while this system of subdivision might tend to convenience of administration by the Imperial authorities, the petty jealousies and narrowness of view which it engendered were not favourable to the growth and development of a country whose natural position and resources were such as to qualify it to play a leading part among the nations of the world.

Some of the bolder spirits among them looked forward to a union which should embrace all British North America, although latterly the interminable postponements, frequent political crises, and constant changes of policy in the Upper Provinces had caused the people of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island to give up hope of coming to an arrangement with Canada.

They resolved, therefore, to confine their efforts to bringing about an alliance among themselves, and to that end the legislatures of the Maritime Provinces authorized their respective governments to hold a joint conference for the purpose of discussing the expediency of a union of the three provinces

of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island under one Government and legislature.

This happened most opportunely for the newly-formed coalition government of Canada, which was just then casting about for the best means of opening negotiations with the other British colonies looking to union. Learning of the concerted action contemplated by the governments of the Lower Provinces, they asked and obtained permission to lay their views before the Maritime conference, which assembled at Charlottetown on September 1, 1864.

At this conference, Nova Scotia was represented by Charles Tupper, W. A. Henry, R. B. Dickey, Jonathan McCully, and Adams G. Archibald. New Brunswick by S. L. Tilley, J. M. Johnson, John H. Gray, E. B. Chandler, and W. H. Steeves; Prince Edward Island by John Hamilton Gray, Edward Palmer, W. H. Pope, George Coles, and A. A. Macdonald; and Canada by John A. Macdonald, Georges E. Cartier, George Brown, Alexander T. Galt, William McDougall, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, Alexander Campbell, and Hector L. Langevin.

The proceedings of this conference were conducted behind closed doors. No report of the proceedings has ever appeared, and it may be taken for granted that none exists. The Canadian delegates, not having been empowered to discuss the question of a *legislative* union, which the Maritime representatives had met specially to consider, were not members of the conference. They, however, were invited by it to express their views, which they did, and unfolded the benefits which, in their judgment, were to be derived from the larger scheme with such effect that the Maritime members, attracted by a plan which promised all the advantages of union without involving the surrender of their own legislatures and executives—a prospect highly distasteful to many of them—agreed to suspend their deliberations, and adjourned to meet at Quebec in the course of the following month for the purpose of conferring with the Canadian representatives on the subject of a *federal* union of all the British North American provinces.



WEALTH FROM THE SEA
From her Outer and Inland Seas Canada draws Food for her People.

On Monday, October 10th, the historic Conference met in the Parliament House at Quebec. In addition to those who had attended the Charlottetown meeting, Canada was also represented by Sir E. P. Taché, Oliver Mowat, J. C. Chapais and J. Cockburn; and New Brunswick by Peter Mitchell and Charles Fisher. Newfoundland sent F. B. T. Carter and Ambrose Shea.

Sir Etienne Taché (Prime Minister of Canada) was chosen as chairman of the conference, and Major Hewitt Bernard, of the office of the Attorney General of Upper Canada, executive secretary. As in Charlottetown, the proceedings were held in secret, though at Quebec certain minutes and memoranda were kept by the secretary and placed with Sir John A. Macdonald's papers, where they lay forgotten for many years. On the death of Macdonald, in 1891, these papers were discovered and subsequently published in a volume entitled "Confederation Documents". While incomplete, this record affords a fair insight into what took place at the conference, which continued its sittings at Quebec until October 28, and finished them at Montreal on the 29th.

At the conference questions were decided by vote, each province having one vote; Canada, for this purpose, being considered as two provinces.

One of the contemporary criticisms levelled against this gathering was that sufficient time had not been given to its labours, and there is no doubt that its proceedings were hurried towards the close. Yet in the seventeen days it sat, many important questions were fully discussed and determined.

Upon one subject there was complete agreement. The delegates, one and all, affirmed their intention to maintain and perpetuate, to cement and not to weaken, the union with the mother country. The first resolution, moved by Macdonald and seconded by Tilley, unmistakably sets this forth. Macdonald, Brown, Cartier, Galt, Tupper, Tilley, and the rest, all spoke with one voice in declaring their resolve to continue unimpaired their allegiance to the British Crown.



CHAMPLAIN THE DISCOVERER
Champlain, Discoverer of Ontario, meets its Native Inhabitants.

So careful were they to make this plain that when Macdonald moved the resolution enumerating the powers of the General Legislature of the United Provinces, he added the words, "saving the sovereignty of England". He also, when discussing the name to be given to the popular assembly, said, "I prefer the term 'House of Commons', but they do not like it to be used elsewhere than in England as they have prescriptive rights", and the spirit of loyalty and deference to Great Britain, which prompted this remark, pervaded every section of the conference.

Upon other points there was not the same unanimity. Macdonald and some others openly avowed their theoretical preference for a legislative as opposed to a federal union; but that, for many reasons, was felt to be impracticable. In the first place, the Canadian delegates, to use a phrase much current at the present day, had no "mandate" to agree to anything but a federal union. Then, Cartier and his followers were unalterably opposed to a legislative union, and without Cartier, Confederation would not have been carried. Brown also favoured the federal principle. The Maritime Provinces likewise were bent upon preserving their individuality, and so the idea of a legislative union never amounted to more than a pious aspiration on the part of a few.

There was, at the same time, a general desire to create a strong central government, and to assign to the provincial legislatures a distinctly minor role. In Brown's opinion the local governments "should not be expensive, and should not take up political matters". One legislative chamber, elected for three years with no power of dissolution, was his idea, vigorously opposed by Cartier. This preference for simplicity of local administration is further indicated by the fact that, in the first draft of the British North America Bill, the heads of the provincial governments, who in the Quebec resolutions were called lieutenant-governors, are styled "superintendents".

Questions relative to the nature and composition of the Upper Chamber provoked much discussion. Macdonald and Brown,

though differing on many points, agreed in preferring a nominative to an elective Senate, and their views prevailed.

The financial questions proved most difficult of adjustment. Sharp differences of opinion existed, which appeared irreconcilable, and very nearly resulted in breaking up the conference. But wiser counsels ultimately prevailed, and at length an agreement was arrived at. The result of the deliberations was embodied in seventy-two resolutions, which were laid before the Parliament of Canada at the following session, and approved by a vote of 91 to 33 on March 11, 1865, the minority being chiefly composed of the Lower Canadian Rouges under A. A. Dorion, in conjunction with John Sandfield Macdonald and his Upper Canadian friends.

The Canadian Government shortly afterwards despatched a mission, consisting of Macdonald, Cartier, Brown and Galt, to England with the object of conferring with Her Majesty's Government upon certain subjects of public concern, at the head of which stood "The proposed Confederation of the British North American provinces, and the means whereby it can be most speedily effected." They found, or at any rate they left, the Imperial authorities most sympathetic to the idea, and ready to promote it in every way in their power.

Meanwhile, things did not go so well in the Maritime Provinces, where unexpected opposition to confederation developed. In New Brunswick, the premier, Mr. Tilley, had judged it expedient to dissolve his Assembly with the object of securing approval of the Confederation scheme from a newly-elected legislature. In this he failed, his policy suffering a pronounced defeat which entailed his resignation. This so disheartened the advocates of Confederation in Nova Scotia that Dr. Tupper, the leader of the government in that province, fell back for the time on the original proposal of a Maritime Union of the Lower Provinces.

In Prince Edward Island the situation was even more hopeless, for the legislature, in 1865, and again in 1866, emphatically declined even to consider a union "which it believes would

prove politically, commercially, and financially disastrous to the rights and interests of its people." So general was the opposition to union, it is said, that only 93 persons could be found in the whole island to declare themselves favourable thereto.

Gradually the Maritime position began to improve. The lieutenant-governors of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, who at first did not relish the prospect of exchanging their position as direct representatives of the Sovereign to become deputies of the Governor General of Canada, and in consequence were unfriendly to the scheme, saw new light, and became its zealous supporters.

On April 17, 1866, the House of Assembly of Nova Scotia, under the leadership of Dr. Tupper, the great protagonist of the cause of union in his province, passed, by a vote of 31 to 19, a short resolution, ignoring the Quebec Conference and all that had gone before, but authorizing the appointment of delegates to arrange with the imperial Government a scheme of union "which will eventually insure just provision for the rights and interest of this province."

In New Brunswick the newly-appointed ministry quarrelled with the lieutenant governor, and resigned within a year. At the ensuing general election, Mr. Tilley and his friends were returned to power, and on June 30, 1866, passed, by a vote of 31 to 8, a resolution similar to that adopted in Nova Scotia, accompanied by a provision for the immediate construction of the Intercolonial railway.

Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island remained obdurate.

While the difficulties in the Maritime Provinces were thus yielding to bold and vigorous statesmanship, fresh obstacles were arising in Canada. Reciprocity negotiations with the United States Government; the withdrawal of George Brown from the Coalition; the Fenian raids; financial exigencies, and other matters of pressing concern, engaged almost exclusively the attention of the ministry during the latter part of 1865, and the opening months of 1866. At length, in June of that



DISCOVERY OF THE CANADIAN WEST

It is a memorable fact that the Prairie Provinces of Canada, with their fertile lands, were discovered by the Hudson's Bay Company, the first of the great Canadian companies, in 1671. The fact that today the Dominion stands forth as one of the great nations of the world is due to the discovery of the Canadian West.



LUMBERING IN CANADA

This, one of our basic industries, is closely associated with the growth of the Dominion. Due to it he furnished the raw materials for many other industries, as well as supplying an important fuel; indirectly it has paved the way for agriculture and the carving of homes out of the wilderness.

year, Parliament met and passed the necessary resolutions providing for the local constitutions of Upper and Lower Canada, subsequently to be known as the provinces of Ontario and Quebec.

While New Brunswick had two general elections over Confederation, there was no reference of the question to the people of the other provinces. In Canada, both Macdonald and Brown judged a general election at the time to be unnecessary and inexpedient, and none took place, the Parliament elected in 1863 continuing until the consummation of the union.

It had been arranged that the further Confederation negotiations should take place in London under the Imperial aegis, and the united delegations had arranged to sail in July, but the defeat of Lord Russell's ministry, and an impression that it was desirable not to complete the Confederation measure until just before the meeting of the Imperial Parliament, some months ahead, formed new reasons for delay, and it was not until November that the Canadian delegates left for England, where they were met by their Maritime colleagues, who sailed at the date originally agreed upon, and had been patiently awaiting their arrival in London for many weeks.

The delegates were received by a sub-committee of the Cabinet, headed by Lord Carnarvon, Secretary of State for the Colonies, while Sir Frederick Rogers (afterwards Lord Blachford), his permanent Under-Secretary, acted as intermediary between the Imperial and Colonial statesmen. The meetings of this body were for the most part confined to formal occasions, the real business being transacted by the delegates, who met apart in the Westminster Palace Hotel, London, in a room where now a tablet marks the historic event.

At the first meeting, held on December 4, 1866, there were assembled:—

From Canada—John A. Macdonald, G. E. Cartier, A. T. Galt, W. McDougall, W. P. Howland, H. L. Langevin,
From Nova Scotia—Charles Tupper, William A. Henry, J. W. Ritchie, Jonathan McCully, A. G. Archibald,

From New Brunswick—S. L. Tilley, J. M. Johnson, P. Mitchell, Charles Fisher, R. D. Wilmot, in all, sixteen members, or fewer than one-half the number which met in Quebec in 1864. Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland were not represented.

The first business of the Conference was to elect John A. Macdonald, chairman, and Hewitt Bernard, secretary.

The resolutions of the Quebec conference were then taken up, considered seriatim, amended in certain particulars and adopted anew. From these amended resolutions was prepared a rough draft of the Bill that was necessary to give them effect. This rough draft was then submitted to the law officers of the Crown, who framed successive drafts expressive of the wishes of the Conference, until the measure reached its final form, was brought before the Imperial Parliament, and became law as the British North America Act.

Following the precedents of Charlottetown and Quebec, the discussions of the London Conference were held in secret, and no official record of the proceedings exists. As at Quebec, the secretary began by recording the minutes of each meeting; this record gradually became more and more intermittent, and finally ceased. These incomplete draft minutes, certain notes and memoranda preserved by Colonel Bernard, together with various drafts of the Bill, constitute all the records of this important body. They were published in 1895 in the volume already referred to.

The question has more than once been asked: To what extent were the colonial delegates given a free hand in the formation of their constitution? Sir Joseph Pope's impression was that, with the exception of the incident connected with the proposal to style the new Confederation "the Kingdom of Canada," which will be related farther on, there was no disposition on the part of the Imperial authorities to interfere with the conclusions reached by the conference.

It is to be inferred from the scanty records which have come down to us that the proceedings at the London gathering were

not characterized by that heat which marked some of the deliberations of the Quebec Conference. The members convened at London evidently realized that the main principles of union had been settled before they came together there, and they resolved to adhere as closely as possible to the Quebec resolutions. One of the most notable additions made thereto is to be found in Galt's amendment to the education clause, which provides for an appeal to the Governor General in Council from any act or decision of the local authorities in any province which might affect the rights or privileges of the Protestant or Catholic minority in the matter of education.

There is an incident touching the selection of the name of the Confederation which deserves to be recorded. A clause in the Quebec resolutions provided that Her Majesty the Queen should be solicited to determine the rank and name of the united colony. This provision appears in the resolutions as revised by the London Conference, and also in the first draft of the Bill.

Apparently there was a change of policy in regard to this subject, for in the place for the name in the fourth clause of the third draft, which had been left vacant in the earlier drafts, appears, for the first time, the name "Kingdom of Canada." Sir John Macdonald has left on record that the conference desired this designation for the new Confederation, and made every effort to retain it, but that Lord Stanley (afterwards 15th Earl of Derby), then Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, objected on the ground that the name "Kingdom" might wound the susceptibilities of the Americans.

For this rather inadequate reason, "Kingdom" was disallowed and "Dominion" substituted therefor. There is no record of a discussion in any conference on the subject, though one in all probability took place, for in the margin of one of Macdonald's drafts there appear, written in his own hand,

one under the other, probably in inverse order of his preference, the words:—

	Province
	Dependency
Qy.	Colony
	Dominion
	Vice Royalty
	Kingdom

If "Kingdom" was not to be employed, it will be generally admitted that the conference made the best selection possible in the circumstances.

The Bill, as finally agreed upon in the London Conference, passed through Parliament without much criticism, and received the Royal Assent on March 29, 1867. On May 22 following, a Royal Proclamation issued, uniting the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick into one Dominion under the name of Canada. Two days later, Lord Monck, who had been appointed Governor General of the new Dominion, entrusted Sir John Macdonald with the formation of his first ministry, a task of no small difficulty, which, however, Macdonald successfully accomplished, and on July 1, 1867, the Dominion started on its career.

Many obstacles had been overcome, but many remained to be dealt with, and it required the exercise of the highest statesmanship to avoid the rocks ahead. The difficulties attendant upon the carrying on of a coalition government, intensified by the bitter opposition of George Brown, who had refused to join the Dominion cabinet, greatly added to the ordinary burden of administration. The anti-union agitation in Nova Scotia, led by Joseph Howe, was full of disastrous possibilities. Scarcely had it been allayed when the first rising in the Northwest under Louis Riel seemed for the moment to threaten the stability of the arrangements under which Rupert's Land and the territories beyond had just been acquired by Canada.

Fenian troubles; serious differences with the United States over fishery and commercial questions; these and other per-



THE MOUNTED POLICE

For more than half a century these Picturesque but very Efficient Police have enforced the Law in the remote corners of the Dominion.

plexing problems pressed heavily upon those charged with the administration of the affairs of the new Dominion. But all were successfully surmounted. Howe gave up the contest, accepted the inevitable, and entered the Cabinet of Sir John Macdonald. Riel was speedily suppressed and compelled to flee the country. The Fenian attacks proved abortive, and the Treaty of Washington of 1871 restored harmony between Canada and the United States. In the same year, British Columbia cast in its lot with the Dominion, followed in 1873 by Prince Edward Island. Manitoba had become a province in 1870. Only Newfoundland stood, and still stands, aloof.

V. AFTER CONFEDERATION

The great internal development which followed Confederation was the westward expansion. "Canada" in 1867 meant the four original provinces, and they extended only to the head of the Great Lakes; beyond were the vast plains; beyond them was British Columbia, where a colony had grown up in the approved British way, and in 1870 was sparse in numbers, enormous in territory, and possessed by its vision of greatness upon the Pacific.

Confederated Canada came to terms with British Columbia, in a bargain regarded by many at the time as impossible; the far western colony was transformed into a province at a time when the only communication was through the United States, or by a voyage around Cape Horn, and the Dominion undertook to build a railway across empty plains and through unexplored mountains. Almost simultaneously the Dominion acquired from the Hudson's Bay Company the prairie region which that great corporation had influenced rather than governed for more than a century.

The success achieved should not blind us in our days of prosperity to the enormous task which was undertaken. The railway scheme when conceived was far more unpromising

than the Grand Trunk enterprise which, begun less than twenty years before with hopes that were very high, had issued in disappointment. The prairies, outside of a small population in the Red River country which gave trouble, were tenanted by powerful tribes of Indians, who at the moment were in a disorderly condition and in an apprehensive frame of mind.

In brief, the new Dominion, the day before a parcel of colonies, turned itself into a colonizing country, with the Northwest Territories as its colony, and covenanted to link its members together in an astonishingly short time.

The performance of the Dominion confounded the faint-hearted. At Confederation the arable land in Eastern Canada immediately available had nearly all been settled and developed, and there was setting in an economic revolution, little talked about but of importance for Canada—the development of agricultural implements.

In the days of the scythe and the flail a considerable population was needed efficiently to work a farming region; when the binder, the mower and the threshing machine came, fewer men could produce larger crops; and the country region had a surplus population. Some went to the cities, whose increase began in earnest at this moment; some emigrated to the United States, where urban development already was in progress; and thousands went to Western Canada.

For a term of years the settlement of the region now known as Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta was mainly in the hands of settlers from Eastern Canada; mainly, but not wholly, for even then there was some immigration from Europe; and in time, as every person knows, the tide, which had paused after 1850, surged in again, and the influx of settlers from overseas became very rapid.

All this meant management and control from Ottawa, and in the main this had been done effectively. By the institution of the Northwest Mounted Police, and the skill with which this Force was conducted, certain important things were effected: the Indians were kept quiet, so that local strife (except for the

feeble rebellion of 1885) there was none, and the prairies moved through the phases of fur-trading, ranching, railway building, farming and urban life without disturbance. Moreover, settlement from the outset was carried on within a framework of law, order and local administration, so that the western frontier missed the pioneer turbulence which marked development in some other countries.

Side by side with this triumph of governmental management went the audacity and enterprise, partly public, partly private, which we associate with the Canadian Pacific Railway. The steel was thrown across the continent in advance of settlement; the very disadvantages of the route were turned into attractions; the lines of rail soon were bordered by strips of cultivated soil; and it was proved that wheat could be grown on the prairie.

Then with another bound the buffalo pastures became a granary. In 1870 the wheat crop of the Dominion all came from Eastern Canada and was 16 million bushels; by 1890 Manitoba was growing about as much as all of Eastern Canada had twenty years earlier; twenty years later the West had surpassed the hundred million bushels yield which in 1900 had come to be a sort of wild dream; and in these latter years the record is computed in hundreds of millions of bushels.

All this meant change in nearly all the aspects of the life of the whole country. Manitoba years after Confederation was called a "province in moccasins"—she to-day goes close to two-thirds of a million population. Beyond her lay the Territories; they have become the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta, with a population approaching a million and a half. More than two million people dwell to-day between Ontario and British Columbia—not far short of the population of Ontario and Quebec at Confederation.

Thus three great provinces have been added to the country, with their own characteristics, and vigorous local life. The new provinces, moreover, leaped almost instantaneously from the subsistence farming, which had been the practice all over the world for uncounted centuries, into commercial agriculture,



THE STORY OF WHEAT

As it reveals itself, especially in the history of the Prairie Provinces, this might with propriety be called the Epic of Wheat. The incredible transformation of the supposedly barren plains of sixty years ago into one gigantic wheat field, a brave feat in the breast problem of the civilized world, is not the least of the marvels of the period since Confederation.

poured an enormous and growing stream of wheat abroad, and stimulated the trade of Eastern Canada.

To serve the ever-widening wheatfields there ensued a burst of railway building, and the mileage which at Confederation had been little over 2,000, by 1891 was nearly 14,000, and by 1921 was approaching 40,000. This enormous construction work carried its own consequences of manufacturing, traffic, city growth and prosperity.

On the Pacific Coast again the same tale of growth may be told. Linked to Eastern Canada, made neighbour to the wheat-fields, incorporated in the life of the Dominion, the distant colony has developed from some thirty odd thousand people when she joined the Dominion to the half a million and more of to-day; is threaded with railways; has mines, fisheries, fruit farms, and other items in a distinctive economy; and, moreover, has made Canada a Pacific country; is the seat of a vigorous trade with the antipodes; and contemplates a traffic with the Orient as huge as the trans-Atlantic commerce upon which the trading life of Canada hitherto has rested.

To agriculture other enormous economic developments have been added. Mining has become a major industry, the exciting gold discoveries in the Yukon Territory, the realization that Alberta is one gigantic coal bed, the bursting into activity of Northern Ontario and Quebec with gold, silver and nickel, furnishing the principal incidents in a long story.

Water-produced electric development has given Central Canada a huge and inexhaustible source of power, opening a vista of manufacturing, with as its beginning the rush into our commerce of the pulp and paper cluster of industries, the descendant of the lumber trade which at once nourished the growth and exhausted the resources of the eastern provinces in the first half of the nineteenth century.

All the while there has been growing the general manufacturing interest of Eastern Canada, which began in earnest in the second decade after Confederation, had its full share of vicissitudes, and to-day accounts for some three billions worth of products.

These glimpses at special aspects of the working life of the Canadian people perhaps make clear the mighty change which sixty years have seen. In 1867 Canada was a congeries of colonies based on the Atlantic, generally devoted to the simpler pursuits, with the minimum of urban population, and in general was a raw-material country dependent for all but the ruder necessities upon more advanced communities. To-day she is a modern country, living the complex life of the world of to-day, carrying on an external trade which is huge by any standard and astonishing in relation to her population, yet increasingly self-contained, and surprisingly varied in her production.

The political events of the sixty years are familiar, and need not be dwelt upon. Sir John Macdonald's Administration carried on the work of government until 1873, laid the foundation of the system of transacting public business, suppressed the Red River rising by the despatch of the Wolseley expedition to Fort Garry, and fell from power upon irregularities connected with the early efforts to build the Canadian Pacific Railway.

Alexander Mackenzie's Ministry followed, to be displaced by that of Sir John Macdonald in 1878, and there followed the rapid building of the Canadian Pacific and the adoption of Protection. The effort of the early years of Macdonald's last Ministry was exhausting, there was a pause in the national growth—the flush of the capital expenditures was over and the returns had not begun—and discontent grew. Macdonald died in 1891. In 1896 Sir Wilfrid Laurier began his fifteen years of rule, and soon afterwards the great expansion, already glanced at, began. In 1911 an attempt by the Laurier Administration to establish again the reciprocity treaty which had left an agreeable memory from the years between 1854 and 1866, resulted in the advent to power of Sir Robert Borden; and soon after came the resounding cataclysm of the Great War, with its momentous upheavals and consequences, with the latter of which the country still is dealing.

In education, and particularly in technical and agricultural education, the progress of the country since Confederation

has been very marked. The past sixty years have also seen the production of a great deal of very creditable work in literature, art and music, and the achievements of Canadian men of science need not fear comparison with those of any other land. Journalism, too, has grown and broadened amazingly since 1867.

Military events have had their place in Canadian history. The country was cradled in war, and after the American Revolution it long was held by England with a strong hand. Speaking broadly, the British Government habitually maintained in British North America a garrison of regular troops equal in numbers to the entire regular army of the United States, while there was kept on foot until shortly before Confederation a carefully and skilfully devised militia system which yielded remarkable results in the struggle of 1812 and the crisis of 1837-38.

After the Crimean War, however, Great Britain began to concentrate her regular army in the United Kingdom, and by 1870 no Imperial troops (outside of the Halifax and Esquimalt garrisons) were quartered in Canada, which henceforward, relied upon its own armed forces for internal tranquility.

The Riel Rebellion of 1885, trifling in itself, was of interest in that it was dealt with by purely Canadian forces. The Canadian Militia was neither numerous, well armed nor well organized, but the lessons of the South African war, not only in tactics but still more in the medical and sanitary services, were taken to heart, and bore fruit in the splendid achievements of Canadian troops in the Great War.

Upon the astonishing story of the Canadian Expeditionary Force it is needless to dwell. Suffice it to say that the First Division was followed by a Second, a Third, a Fourth, and that the Canadian Army Corps became one of the three or four most formidable units in Sir Douglas Haig's mighty host. Led by Canadian generals, it was in itself a great army of some 125,000 men, equipped beyond others, a model in organization, fortunate in the maintenance of its fighting strength despite the ghastly toll of blood, firm in discipline, obstinate in defence, powerful

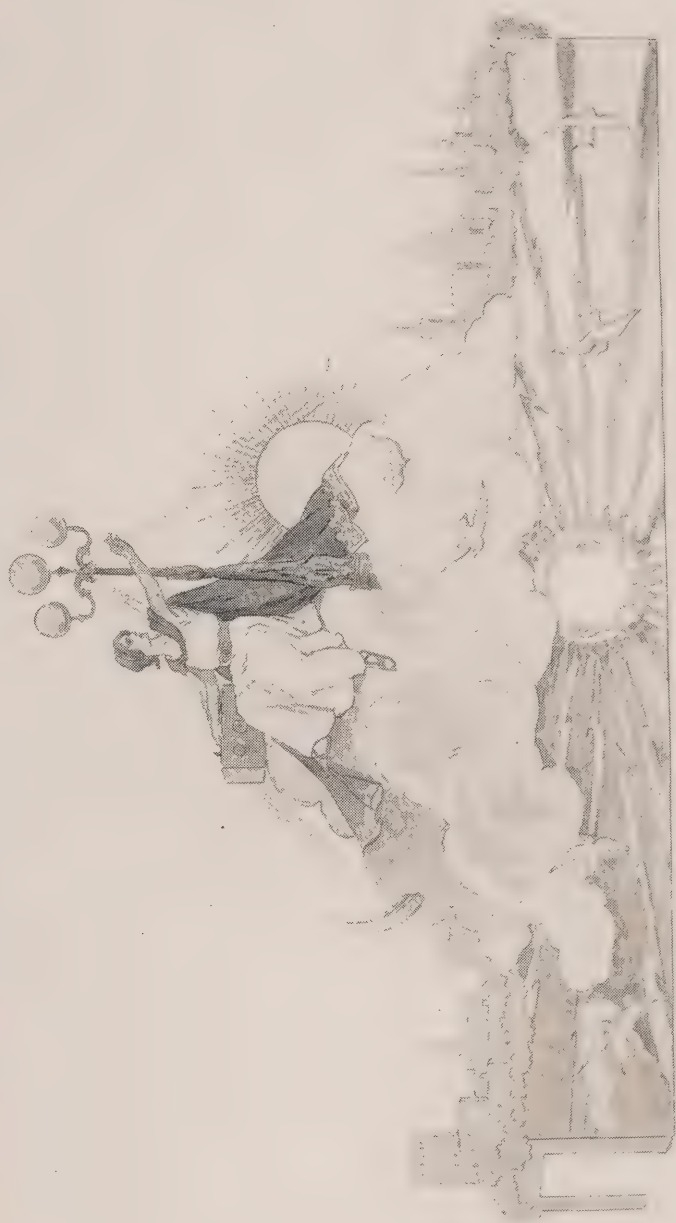
and successful in attack. After the Second Ypres came the Somme in 1916, Vimy, Hill 70 and Paaschendale in 1917, Amiens, the Drocourt Line, Cambrai, Valenciennes and the entry into Mons in 1918—all of these furious battles and noteworthy feats of arms. Great glory came to our soldiers, while in Canada half a million men were enrolled to keep that army in the field, feats were performed in the production of food and the supply of munitions which would have been unbelievable in the summer of 1914, and the demobilized troops were dealt with upon a scale and with a generosity at least equal to those shown anywhere else.

The events which followed the conclusion of peace are too fresh in the public memory to require recapitulation. The strain had been severe, and of course reaction followed, alike because of exhaustion in Canadian markets abroad and of readjustment at home. The difficulties seem over, the hill is breasted, and an illimitable prospect is before our eyes.

In looking back across the sixty years one realizes that Confederation has meant much more to British North America than the breaking of a political deadlock in the Upper Provinces or the solution of local problems in the Lower. It has welded together in one strong continental union a number of weak colonies that hitherto had had so little in common and were so ignorant of one another's point of view and problems that they might as well have been foreign communities.

In 1867 Halifax and St. John were for all practical purposes as remote from Montreal and Toronto as if they had been on opposite sides of the Atlantic. It took almost as many days as to-day it takes hours to travel from Halifax to Toronto; and the contrast between the postal facilities of those days and the telegraphic communication of the present time is nothing short of amazing.

At the time of the union, to reach the Red River settlement from Ottawa required more time and involved an infinitely more trying journey than to-day to travel around the world. Many months were then required to send a message to British



ELECTRICITY

Canada finds in the Harnessing of her Streams an unlimited source of Power to drive her Factories and Light her Homes.

Columbia and get a reply, which at the present time can be done almost instantaneously.

Confederation has brought with it the development of a system of government admirably adapted to the genius and needs of such a democratic country as Canada, and one that in many respects has served as a model to the other Dominions of the British Commonwealth. Federal, provincial and municipal governments form a flexible and interrelated chain serving all the manifold requirements of the country and linking every unit with the whole.

Modern facilities for rapid travel and intercommunication are rapidly breaking down all that remains of ancient misunderstandings between different parts of the country. Eastern Canada and Western Canada, Ontario and Quebec, the Maritimes and the Upper Provinces, are learning to understand each other's viewpoint and peculiar problems, and to realize that each has something worth while to contribute to the national character and the national welfare.

Canada is to-day an equal partner with Great Britain, Ireland and the other Overseas Dominions in one world-wide Confederation. She remains in that Confederation, not by compulsion, but by her own deliberate choice. She is as loyal as she ever was, but to-day that loyalty is given not to England alone but to the great British Commonwealth of which both Canada and England are members.



A Bibliography of Canadian History

It is perhaps unnecessary to say that what follows is not and does not profess to be a complete or exhaustive bibliography of works relating to the history of Canada. Such a list would occupy much more than all the pages of this pamphlet. This is essentially a selected list, made up for the most part of books that are readily accessible in any public library, and designed to be helpful to those who may wish to follow up some of the lines of thought suggested in this pamphlet.

In addition to this list, any one interested will find a wealth of material relating to various phases of the history of Canada in the Public Archives of Canada, the Provincial Archives of Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, British Columbia and other provinces, the transactions and other publications of the Royal Society of Canada, the Canadian Historical Association, and the various provincial and local historical societies.

A general reference may also be made here to the scholarly publications of the Champlain Society, all of which relate to Canadian history; the monumental work issued in 1914 in 23 volumes, *Canada and its Provinces*; the 32 volumes of *Chronicles of Canada*, published in 1914-16; *Canada: An Encyclopaedia of the Country*, issued in 1898-1900; and the new edition of *The Makers of Canada*, published in 1926. Reference should also be made to the new editions of old Canadian works in course of publication by *The Radisson Society*, of which three have so far appeared.

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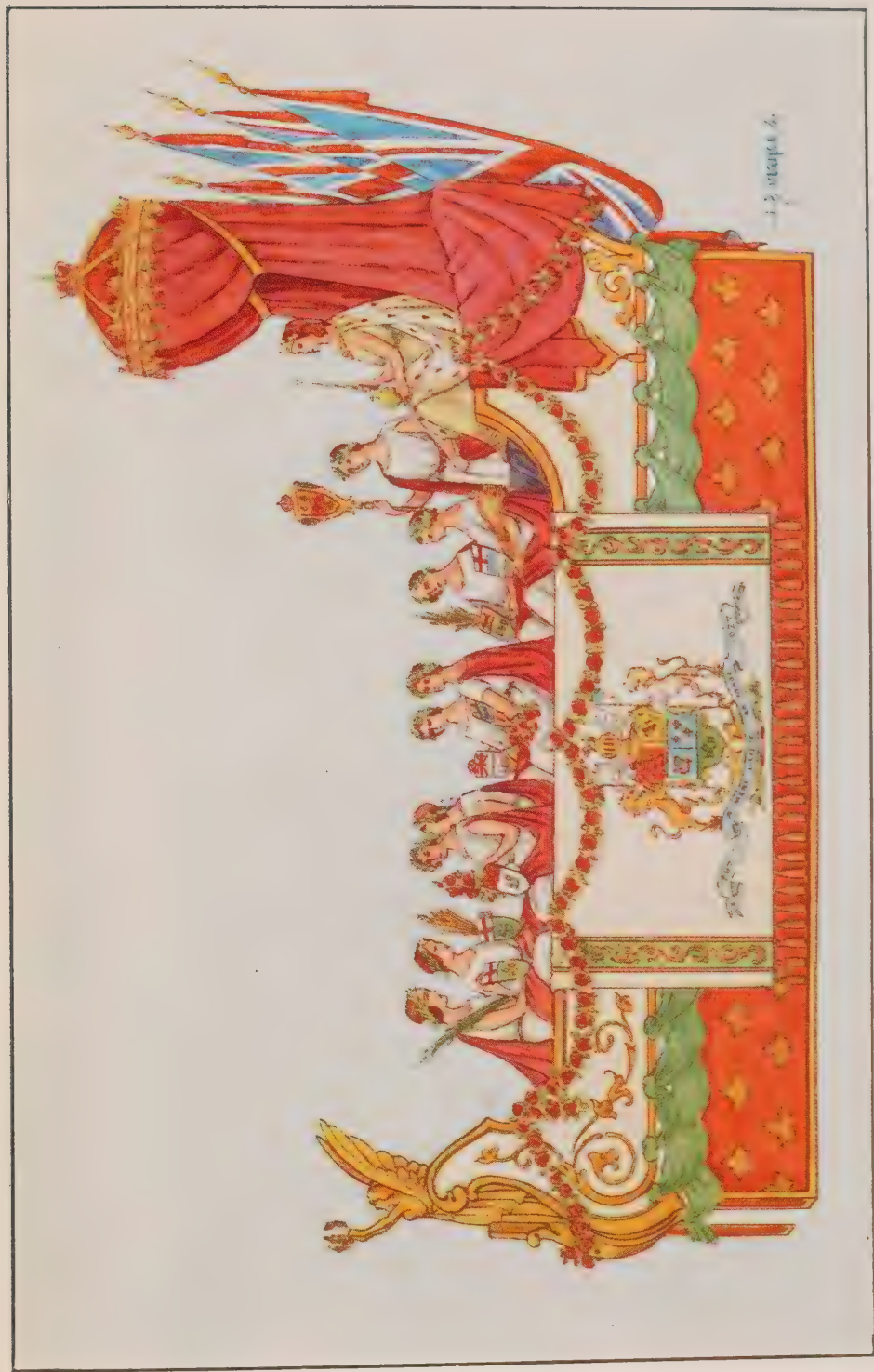
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CONFEDERATION

The birth of this nation of the North. In 1867 a group of weak, scattered and more or less unsympathetic colonies were linked together in a union that a few years later spread from sea to sea. Confederation has brought with it strength, cohesion, growth, ambition, national consciousness. We look backward to sixty years of foundation-building, and forward to the superstructure of worth and beauty that shall rise therefrom.

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Back to the Beginning of our History goes the romantic Traffic in Peltries, a Traffic which still Survives.

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Life and Letters of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. By O. D. Skelton. Toronto. 1921.
Sir Oliver Mowat. By C. R. W. Biggar. Toronto. 1905.
Life of Thomas D'Arcy McGee. By Isabel Skelton. Gardenvale. 1925.
Recollections of Sixty Years. By Sir Charles Tupper. New York. 1914.
Reminiscences. By Sir Richard Cartwright. Toronto. 1912.
Reminiscences. By Sir Francis Hincks. Montreal. 1884.
Public Men and Public Life in Canada. By James Young. Toronto.
Reminiscences. By Sir J. S. Willison. Toronto.
Sir Georges-Etienne Cartier. Par A. Dansereau. Montréal.
Papineau. Par Eve Circé Côté. Montréal.
Laurier. Par L. O. David. Beauceville.
Lafontaine et Cartier. Par A. D. Decelles. Montréal.
Life and Letters of Durham. By Stuart Reid. London. 1906.
Sandford Fleming: Empire Builder. By Lawrence J. Burpee. Toronto. 1915.
Life of Lord Strathcona. By Beckles Willson. London. 1915.
Le Marquis de Montcalm. Par Thomas Chapais. Québec.
Life of James Wolfe. By Beckles Willson. London. 1909.
Pioneer Priests of North America. By T. J. Campbell. New York. 1908.
Nos historiens. Par Henri d'Arles.
Jean Talon. Par Thomas Chapais.
La Comte de Frontenac. Par Henri Lorin.
La Vie de Mgr Laval. Par Abbé Gosselin.

DESCRIPTION AND TRAVEL

In the publications of the Champlain Society, already referred to, are included the narratives of such famous explorers and travellers as Champlain, Lescarbot, La Vérendrye, Hearne and Thompson. Many works, by Canadian, American and French scholars, have been devoted to the discoveries of La



THE DISCOVERY OF CANADA

Jacques Cartier sails up the Great River of Canada, pioneer of a noble band of adventurers and path finders who are to blaze the way into the heart of the continent, where future generations are to make their homes.

Salle. The same may be said of Jacques Cartier. Masson's *Bourgeois de la Compagnie du Nord-Ouest* contains the narratives of a number of the western fur-traders. The following is a selection from the long list of books of travel in Canada:

Voyages through the Continent of America. By Alexander Mackenzie.

Voyages and Travels in North America. By D. W. Harmon.

New Voyages to North America. By Baron de Lahontan.

New Discovery of a Vast Country in America. By Louis Hennepin.

(The works of Lahontan and Hennepin were also published in French.)

Travels and Adventures. By Alexander Henry. Toronto. 1901.

Journals of Henry and Thompson. Ed. by Elliott Coues. New York. 1897.

The Lake Superior Country. By T. M. Longstreth. Toronto.

The Canadian Rockies. By A. P. Coleman. Toronto. 1912.

The Arctic Prairies. By E. T. Seton. Toronto.

The Friendly Arctic. By V. Stefansson. Toronto.

Récits de voyages. Par Arthur Buies. Québec.

Le tour du Saguenay. Par Damase Potvin. Québec.

Croquis laurentiens. Par Frère Marie-Victorin. Montréal.

Aux Glaces polaires. Par P. J. P. Duchaussois. Ottawa.

HISTORICAL PICTURES

Large collections of portraits and scenes relating to Canadian history will be found in the Public Archives of Canada, the John Ross Robertson Collection in the Toronto Public Library, the Royal Museum of Archaeology at Toronto, the Parliamentary Library at Ottawa, the Chateau de Ramezay in Montreal, the McCord Museum in Montreal, and the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec, as well as in the provincial or legislative libraries in the various provinces. A very interesting series of coloured reproductions of Canadian historical pictures has recently been issued by Thomas Nelson & Son of Toronto.

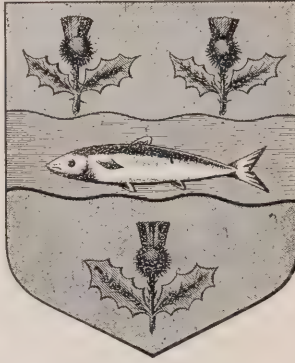


Provincial Armorial Bearings

PRINCE EDWARD
ISLAND



NOVA
SCOTIA



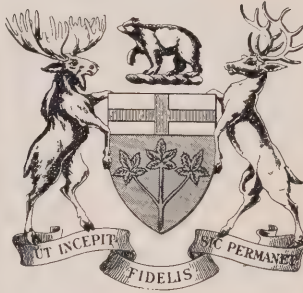
NEW
BRUNSWICK



QUEBEC



ONTARIO



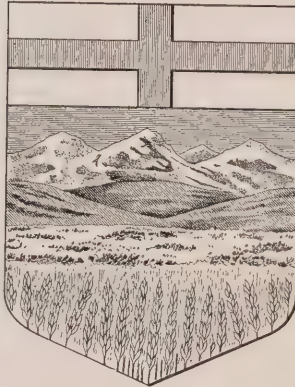
MANITOBA



SASKATCHEWAN



ALBERTA



BRITISH COLUMBIA



MEANINGS OF WORDS

gules—red
 azure—blue
 sable—black
 vert—green
 or—gold
 argent—silver
 charge—device on shield
 proper—in natural colour
 garb—sheaf of wheat

fess—horizontal band across shield
 chief—band in top of shield
 passant—walking
 gardant—Looking full face at the
 spectator
 rampant—leaping
 naiant—swimming
 statant—standing

ARMORIAL ENSIGNS OF THE PROVINCES OF CANADA

ONTARIO — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 26th May, 1868.

Description—"Vert a Sprig of three leaves of Maple slipped Or, on a Chief Argent the Cross of St. George."

Crest and Supporters granted by Royal Warrant dated the 27th February, 1909.

Description of Crest—"Upon a Wreath of the Colours a Bear passant Sable, and the Supporters on the dexter side A Moose, and on the sinister side A Canadian Deer Both Proper."

Motto—"Ut Incepit Fidelis Sic Permanet."

QUEBEC — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 26th May, 1868.

Description—"Or on a fess gules between two Fleur de Lis in Chief Azure and a Sprig of three leaves of Maple slipped Vert in base a Lion passant guardant Or."

NOVA SCOTIA — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 26th May, 1868.

Description—"Or on a Fess wavy Azure between three Thistles proper a Salmon naiant Argent."

NEW BRUNSWICK — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 26th May, 1868.

Description—"Or on Waves a Lymphad, or Ancient Galley, with Oars in Action proper on a Chief Gules a Lion passant guardant Or."

MANITOBA — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 10th May, 1905.

Description—"Vert on a Rock a Buffalo statant proper, on a Chief Argent the Cross of St. George."

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 30th May, 1905.

Description—"Argent on an Island Vert, to the Sinister an Oak Tree fructed, to the Dexter thereof three oak Saplings Sprouting all Proper, on a Chief Gules a Lion Passant Guardant Or."

BRITISH COLUMBIA — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 31st March, 1906.

Description—"Argent three Bars wavy Azure issuant from the base of a demi-Sun in splendour proper, on a Chief the Union Device charge in the centre Point with an Antique Crown Or."

SASKATCHEWAN — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 25th August, 1906.

Description—"Vert three Garbs in fesse Or, on a Chief of the last a Lion passant guardant Gules."

ALBERTA — Granted by Royal Warrant dated the 30th May, 1907.

Description—"Azure in front of a Range of Snow Mountains proper, a Range of Hills Vert, in base a Wheat-field surmounted by a Prairie both also proper, on a Chief Argent a St. George's Cross."

